

# High Prevalence of Peripheral Arterial Disease in HIV-Infected Persons

Daniel Periard,<sup>1</sup> Matthias Cavassini,<sup>2</sup> Patrick Taffé,<sup>3</sup> Melanie Chevalley,<sup>1</sup> Laurence Senn,<sup>2</sup> Caroline Chapuis-Taillard,<sup>2</sup> Serge de Vallière,<sup>2</sup> Daniel Hayoz,<sup>1,4</sup> and Philip E. Tarr,<sup>2,a</sup> for the Swiss HIV Cohort Study<sup>b</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Angiology and <sup>2</sup>Infectious Diseases Services, University Hospital, and <sup>3</sup>Swiss HIV Cohort Study Data Center, Lausanne, and <sup>4</sup>Hôpital Cantonal, Fribourg, Switzerland

**Background.** Atherosclerosis has been assessed in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected persons by using various methods. Peripheral arterial disease (PAD) has not been evaluated, however. We studied the cross-sectional prevalence of lower limb PAD in an HIV-infected population.

**Methods.** PAD was assessed using the Edinburgh Claudication Questionnaire and by measuring the systolic ankle-brachial blood pressure index (ABI) at rest and after exercise. Patients with PAD were further evaluated by duplex scan of lower limb arteries.

**Results.** Ninety-two consecutive HIV-infected patients were evaluated (23.9% women; mean age, 49.5 years; 61.9% current smokers). Claudication was reported by 15.2% of the patients. PAD was found in 20.7% of the patients: 9.8% had an abnormal ABI (<0.90) at rest, and 10.9% had normal ABI at rest but a >25% decrease after exercise. Of the patients with PAD, 84.2% were investigated with duplex scan, all of whom had atherosclerotic occlusions or stenoses of the iliac or femoral arteries. Age, diabetes, smoking, and low CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocyte counts were identified as independent predictors of PAD.

**Conclusions.** The prevalence of symptomatic and asymptomatic PAD is high in the HIV-infected population and is much higher than expected (prevalence in the general population, ~3% at 60 years). This study suggests the presence of an epidemic of PAD ~20 years earlier in the HIV-infected than in the general population. Larger epidemiological studies are needed to better define risk factors and to evaluate whether PAD is associated with increased mortality, as it is in the general population.

Combination antiretroviral therapy has dramatically decreased the mortality and illnesses related to HIV infection. However, a variety of atherogenic metabolic abnormalities, including dyslipidemia, lipodystrophy, and insulin resistance [1, 2], have been observed soon after the introduction of combination antiretroviral therapy. Concern about increased cardiovascular mortality was raised by the detection of subclinical atherosclerosis by measuring the carotid intima-media thickness [3–5], endothelial dysfunction [6, 7], and coronary calcifications [8]. An association between premature coronary events and use of protease inhibitors (PIs) is now well established in the HIV-infected population [9, 10].

The prevalence of peripheral arterial disease (PAD) has not been assessed in HIV-infected patients. In the general population, PAD is associated with traditional cardiovascular risk factors, particularly smoking, diabetes, hypertension, and hypercholesterolemia [11]. These factors may have an increased prevalence among HIV-infected patients [10, 12]. PAD of the lower limbs can be assessed by a marker validated in numerous studies, the ankle-brachial index (ABI) [11]. A decreased ABI is associated with a shorter survival in the general population, which is mainly due to an increase in coronary and cerebrovascular events [13, 14]. The aim of our study was to assess the cross-sectional prevalence of PAD in an HIV-infected population and to evaluate the feasibility of measuring the ABI in the routine HIV care setting.

Received 12 July 2007; accepted 5 November 2007; electronically published 29 January 2008.

Reprints or correspondence: Dr. Daniel Periard, Angiology Service, PMU 07, University Hospital (CHUV), 1011 Lausanne, Switzerland (Daniel.Periard@chuv.ch).

**Clinical Infectious Diseases** 2008;46:761–7

© 2008 by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved.

1058-4838/2008/4605-0019\$15.00

DOI: 10.1086/527564

<sup>a</sup> Present affiliation: Infectious Diseases Service, University Hospital, Bruderholz, Switzerland.

<sup>b</sup> Members of the SHCS are listed at the end of the text.

## METHODS

**Patients.** From 1 July through 30 September 2006, all consecutive HIV-infected patients aged  $\geq 40$  years who were observed in the Infectious Disease Outpatient Clinic at the University Hospital in Lausanne, Switzerland, were invited to take part to the study. The only exclusion criteria were active injection drug use or known arterial complications from previous use. Informed consent was obtained from all patients, and the study was approved by the institutional ethics committee. Symptoms potentially related to PAD (claudication, rest pain, and nonhealing leg wounds) were recorded using the Edinburgh Claudication Questionnaire [15].

**Cardiovascular risk factors.** Abnormal plasma lipid levels were defined using the third adult treatment panel guidelines of the National Education Cholesterol Program [16]. To take into account the longitudinal variability in lipid levels due to changes of combination antiretroviral therapy, lipid-lowering

medication, and fasting status, we considered, in addition to the point prevalence of dyslipidemia at the most recent blood draw, the longitudinal prevalence of sustained dyslipidemia, as previously reported [17], by including all lipid levels determined during the 5-year period preceding the ABI measurement. Sustained non-high-density lipoprotein (HDL) hypercholesterolemia, low HDL cholesterol levels, and hypertriglyceridemia were defined as more than two-thirds of an individual patient's respective measurements in plasma being  $>4.9$  mmol/L (190 mg/L),  $<1.03$  mmol/L (40 mg/L), and  $>2.26$  mmol/L (200 mg/L), respectively. Hypertension was defined as a brachial blood pressure of  $>140/90$  mm Hg, as measured after 5 min of rest, or by the current use of any antihypertensive drug. Metabolic syndrome was defined by the International Diabetes Federation criteria [18].

**Rest and postexercise ABI measurement.** Patients rested for 5 min lying on a bed, after which blood pressure was mea-

**Table 1. Clinical characteristics of the 92 study participants, compared with the 511 patients aged  $\geq 40$  years observed in the outpatient HIV clinic of the University Hospital of Lausanne in 2006 who were not included in the study.**

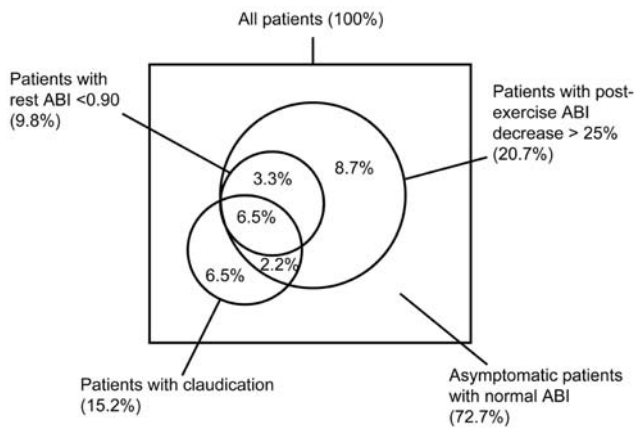
| Characteristic  | Study participants<br>(n = 92) | Patients not included<br>in the study<br>(n = 511) |
|---|--------------------------------|--|
| Male  | 70 (76.1)                      | 357 (69.9)   |
| Age, mean years $\pm$ SD                                | 49.5 $\pm$ 7.4                 | 49.7 $\pm$ 7.9                                     |
| Ethnicity   |                                |  |
| White   | 81 (88.0)                      | 448 (87.7)   |
| Black   | 7 (7.6)                        | 44 (8.6)   |
| Other   | 4 (4.3)                        | 19 (3.7)   |
| Presumed mode of HIV transmission                       |                                |  |
| Heterosexual sex  | 27 (29.3)                      | 224 (43.8)   |
| Homosexual sex  | 37 (40.2)                      | 182 (35.6)   |
| Injection drug use                                      | 26 (28.3)                      | 88 (17.2)  |
| Other   | 2 (2.2)                        | 17 (3.3)   |
| HIV load $<400$ copies/mL                               | 73 (79.3)                      | 387 (75.7)   |
| CD4 <sup>+</sup> T cell count, cells/ $\mu$ L           |                                |  |
| $<200$  | 5 (5.4)                        | 46 (9.0)   |
| 200–500   | 35 (38.0)                      | 218 (42.7)   |
| $>500$  | 51 (55.4)                      | 246 (48.1)   |
| Family history of cardiovascular disease                | 21 (22.8)                      | 93 (18.2)  |
| Hypertension  | 25 (27.2)                      | 153 (29.9)   |
| Diabetes mellitus                                       | 4 (4.3)                        | 33 (6.5)   |
| Increased plasma non-HDL cholesterol level <sup>a</sup> | 12 (13.0)                      | 62 (12.1)  |
| Low plasma HDL cholesterol level <sup>b</sup>           | 16 (17.4)                      | 109 (21.3)   |
| Elevated plasma triglyceride level <sup>c</sup>         | 33 (35.9)                      | 134 (26.2)   |
| Metabolic syndrome                                      | 25 (27.2)                      | NA   |
| Current smoking   | 57 (62.0)                      | 197 (38.6)   |

**NOTE.** Data are no. (%) of patients, unless otherwise indicated. HDL, high-density lipoprotein; NA, not available.

<sup>a</sup> Defined as a level  $>4.9$  mmol/L.

<sup>b</sup> Defined as a level  $<1.03$  mmol/L.

<sup>c</sup> Defined as a level  $>2.26$  mmol/L.



**Figure 1.** Distribution of abnormal ankle-brachial blood pressure index (ABI) values at rest and after exercise according to symptoms.

sured at the posterior tibialis and dorsalis pedis arteries of both ankles with a 5.0 MHz vascular Nicolet Elite Doppler probe (Viasys) and a sphygmomanometer. Brachial pressure was simultaneously measured at both arms by 2 HEM-907 automated manometers (Omron), with cuff size adapted to the arm circumference. For each leg, the ABI was calculated by dividing the higher systolic ankle pressure by the higher brachial systolic pressure. The ABI threshold of 0.90, measured at rest, has 79% sensitivity and 96% specificity to detect stenoses of  $\geq 50\%$  reduction in arterial luminal diameter [19]. To evaluate the presence of presumably less severe arterial stenoses that were not detected at rest, the same ABI measurement was repeated immediately after the patient slowly performed 20 squats, under supervision. Among the different exercise protocols used to confirm or quantify PAD [20], we chose squatting because it is simple to perform and does not require a mechanical treadmill. PAD was investigated by the same ABI measures in a control group of HIV-uninfected subjects. These subjects were recruited among hospital coworkers if they were current smokers and were aged  $\geq 40$  years.

**Definition of PAD.** According to the American Heart Association and American College of Cardiology guidelines, PAD was diagnosed when the ABI was  $<0.90$  at rest or when the ABI significantly decreased after exercise [11]. Different thresholds to define an exercise-related ABI decrease have been used in different studies [21–23]. Considering the intra-observer variability of ABI measurement (estimated to be 0.06–0.08) [24], an absolute decrease in ABI of  $>0.15$  (2 SDs) is usually considered to be significant [11]. To increase specificity, we defined a postexercise decrease of  $>25\%$  as significant.

**Duplex scan.** To confirm and localize vascular lesions, patients with abnormal rest or postexercise ABI were invited to undergo arterial duplex scanning (En Visor HD; Philips Ultrasounds). The wall and lumen of the main arteries from the abdominal aorta to the ankles were evaluated. Plaque was de-

finied as  $>1.2$ -mm thickening of the intima-media of the arterial wall, with or without calcifications. The percentage of stenosis was estimated by the peak systolic velocity ratio [25]. All ABI measurements and duplex scans were performed by 1 of 3 vascular specialists (D.P., M.C., or D.H.).

**Statistical analysis.** The contribution of clinical characteristics, cardiovascular risk factors (hypertension, smoking, diabetes, plasma lipid levels, and metabolic syndrome), and infectious parameters (most recent CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell count, most recent HIV load, duration of seropositivity, and cumulative exposure to PIs and nonnucleoside reverse-transcriptase inhibitors) to prevalence of PAD were analyzed using multivariable logistic regression analysis. Factors were first analyzed individually in bivariate analysis and then selected for multivariable analysis on the basis of a  $P$  value  $<.2$  or a confounding effect. Linearity on the logit scale was assessed with the fractional polynomial method. Because of the limited sample size, no more than 4 factors were assessed at any time. Goodness of fit was determined using the Hosmer Lemeshow test and area under the receiver operating curve. All statistical analyses were performed using Stata software, version 9.2 (Stata).

## RESULTS

**Patients.** Ninety-two patients (23.9% women) were included in the study. Their clinical characteristics were compared with those of the remaining 511 HIV-infected patients aged  $\geq 40$  years who were observed in our clinic in 2006 but did not participate in the study (table 1). Claudication (grade 1 and 2 of Edinburgh Questionnaire) was reported by 15.2% of the patients. No patient reported leg pain at rest or nonhealing leg ulcers.

ABI results are shown in figure 1. PAD was found in 20.7% (95% CI, 12.2%–29.1%) of the patients: 9.8% (95% CI, 3.6%–16.0%) had an abnormal ABI at rest, and 10.9% (95% CI, 4.4%–17.4%) had a normal rest ABI but a  $>25\%$  decrease after exercise. All 9 patients with rest ABI of  $<0.90$  also had a postexercise ABI decrease of  $>25\%$  (mean decrease  $\pm$  SD, 34.1%  $\pm$  20.0%). Among the 15.2% of patients reporting claudication of the lower limbs, 6.5% had normal ABI results, 6.5% had decreased ABI at rest, and 2.2% had a normal rest ABI but an abnormal ABI after exercise.

Duplex scan revealed classical atherosclerotic occlusive disease of the iliac and femoral arteries in all 9 patients with rest ABI of  $<0.90$  (table 2). Among the 10 patients with rest ABI of  $\geq 0.90$  and  $>25\%$  decrease after exercise, 7 agreed to duplex scanning. Atherosclerotic plaques or stenoses were found in all 7 patients (table 3).

Among the 9 patients with rest ABI of  $<0.90$ , 2 had known coronary disease, 1 had a previous stroke due to carotid dissection, and 5 had no known history of cerebral or coronary vascular disease. One patient gave a history of exercise-related

**Table 2. Clinical characteristics and duplex scan findings of the 9 patients with ankle-brachial blood pressure index (ABI) of <0.90 at rest.**

| Patient | Sex | Age, years | Claudication <sup>a</sup> | Risk factor(s)                     | ABI at rest | ABI after exercise | Duplex scan findings  |
|---------|-----|------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|---|
| 1       | M   | 77         | After 200 m               | None                               | 0.77        | 0.55               | Femoropopliteal and calf atherosclerosis  |
| 2       | M   | 68         | After 50 m                | Diabetes, cholesterol              | 0.71        | 0.48               | Diffuse aorto-iliac, femoropopliteal and calf atherosclerosis                         |
| 3       | M   | 66         | None                      | Diabetes                           | 0.81        | 0.63               | Diffuse aorto-iliac, femoropopliteal, and calf atherosclerosis                        |
| 4       | M   | 56         | After 150 m               | Hypertension, cholesterol, smoking | 0.82        | 0.42               | Diffuse aorto-iliac, femoropopliteal, and calf atherosclerosis                        |
| 5       | M   | 56         | After 50 m                | Smoking, hypertension, cholesterol | 0.79        | 0.48               | 95% Stenosis of the left common iliac artery  |
| 6       | M   | 46         | After 150 m               | Smoking                            | 0.65        | 0.45               | Bilateral occlusion of the popliteal arteries   |
| 7       | M   | 45         | After 100 m               | Smoking, cholesterol               | 0.70        | 0.32               | 90% Stenosis of the left and occlusion of the right common iliac arteries             |
| 8       | F   | 42         | After 80 m                | Smoking                            | 0.74        | 0.44               | Diffuse aorto-iliac atherosclerosis with 95% stenosis of the left common iliac artery |
| 9       | F   | 40         | After 200 m               | Smoking                            | 0.55        | 0.20               | Diffuse aorto-iliac atherosclerosis with occlusion of the left extern iliac artery    |

<sup>a</sup> Distance of walk after which symptoms appear in the lower limbs.

chest pain, which occurred at the time of preanesthesia evaluation before peripheral artery bypass surgery. Among the 10 patients with rest ABI of  $\geq 0.90$  and  $>25\%$  decrease after exercise, one had known coronary artery disease.

**Controls.** Thirty-two HIV-uninfected, currently smoking control subjects (mean age, 47 years; range, 41–56 years) were included. Four (12.5%) had hypertension. None had a rest ABI of  $<0.90$ , and 2 (6.3%) had a  $>25\%$  decrease after exercise.

**Predictors of PAD.** Results of logistic regression analysis are shown in table 4. In bivariate analysis, a correlation was found between PAD and age, smoking, hyperlipidemia, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, metabolic syndrome, family history of cardiovascular disease, and CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell count of  $<200$  cells/ $\mu\text{L}$ . Other factors related to HIV infection (duration of seropositivity, clinical stage, and cumulative exposure to PIs) had ORs that suggested a correlation with PAD but that did not reach statistical significance. Multivariate analysis identified age, smoking, diabetes, and CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell of  $<200$  cells/ $\mu\text{L}$  as important and significant predictors of PAD (table 4). The fit of this model was satisfactory (area under receiver operating curve, 0.78; sensitivity, 67%; specificity, 62%;  $P = .58$ , by Hosmer Lemeshow test). Dyslipidemia, metabolic syndrome, and familial history had ORs that were  $\geq 2.0$  but did not reach significance in multivariable analysis.

## DISCUSSION

The major finding of this pilot study is a high cross-sectional prevalence of PAD in a population representative of HIV-infected persons in western Europe. PAD was evaluated using widely accepted definitions and screening tools, and duplex scan confirmed atherosclerotic disease of the main limb arteries in all patients with an abnormal ABI either at rest or after

exercise. Atherosclerotic lesions were localized in the iliac and femoral arteries, as generally seen in nondiabetic patients with PAD. Most patients with PAD had symptoms limited to exertion, and no study participant had ischemic rest pain or critical limb ischemia, consistent with the relatively young age of participants. Duplex scan identified more-severe atherosclerotic disease in patients with abnormal rest ABI than in those with decreased ABI after exercise only. Only 5 of the 19 patients with PAD were previously known to have cerebral or coronary vascular disease, potentially allowing the 14 newly identified patients with PAD to receive interventions to correct modifiable cardiovascular risk factors.

Large epidemiological studies have reported a prevalence of PAD of  $\sim 1\%$  at 50 years and 3% at 60 years of age in the general population [26, 27]. The 20.7% prevalence of PAD in our study, evaluating a relatively young population of HIV-infected patients (median age, 49.5 years), is therefore strikingly higher than expected. This difference with historical control subjects may be attributed in part to technical differences in the method used to screen for PAD. Most large population studies have used rest ABI of  $<0.90$  as the definition of PAD. In our study, the systematic performance of a second ABI after exercise raised the sensitivity of screening and doubled the proportion of patients with PAD. The utility of this exercise was demonstrated by duplex scan confirmation of PAD in all patients (including those whose ABI decreased only after exercise). However, even if we consider only the proportion of patients who had rest ABI of  $<0.90$  in our study (9.8%), this proportion remains considerably higher than that for historical control subjects aged  $<50$  years.

A high proportion of patients included in the study were smokers, which may have contributed to the high proportion

**Table 3. Clinical characteristics and duplex scan findings of 7 patients with ABI of  $\geq 0.90$  at rest and a  $>25\%$  decrease after exercise.**

| Patient | Sex | Age, years | Claudication <sup>a</sup> | Risk factor(s)       | ABI at rest | ABI after exercise | Duplex scan findings  |
|---------|-----|------------|---------------------------|----------------------|-------------|--------------------|---|
| 1       | M   | 55         | None                      | Smoking, cholesterol | 1.08        | 0.79               | Common femoral and superficial femoral atherosclerotic plaque |
| 2       | M   | 54         | After 300 m               | Smoking              | 0.92        | 0.69               | Bilateral stenosis of the superficial femoral arteries        |
| 3       | M   | 49         | None                      | Smoking, cholesterol | 1.25        | 0.87               | Common femoral and superficial femoral atherosclerotic plaque |
| 4       | M   | 44         | None                      | Smoking              | 1.12        | 0.84               | Common femoral and superficial femoral atherosclerotic plaque |
| 5       | M   | 44         | None                      | Smoking, cholesterol | 1.19        | 0.89               | Atherosclerotic plaques in the iliac and femoral arteries     |
| 6       | M   | 40         | After 150 m               | Smoking, diabetes    | 1.16        | 0.72               | Common femoral and superficial femoral atherosclerotic plaque |
| 7       | F   | 40         | None                      | Smoking              | 1.23        | 0.87               | Superficial femoral atherosclerotic plaque                    |

<sup>a</sup> Distance of walk after which symptoms appear in the lower limbs.

of PAD detected. However, smoking alone cannot fully explain the high PAD prevalence, because 3 of the 9 HIV-infected patients with rest ABI of  $<0.9$  were nonsmokers and because only 2 (6.3%) of the 32 HIV-uninfected control subjects, all of whom were smokers, had PAD. This is consistent with the results of a study of HIV-seronegative men aged 45–50 years, 72.3% of whom were current or past smokers, which found a prevalence of PAD of 1% [26].

Considerable attention has been paid in the literature to the effect of combination antiretroviral therapy on premature atherosclerosis of the coronary or carotid arteries [3–9]. Nevertheless, to our knowledge, the incidence of PAD of the lower limbs has not been investigated in the HIV-infected population. Subclinical atherosclerosis was found in several studies using B-mode ultrasound on the carotid or femoral arteries, indicated by either an increase in intima-media thickness or the presence of plaques [3, 4, 28–31]. Depairon et al. [4] found that 55% of HIV-infected patients had at least 1 carotid or femoral plaque, compared with 38% of healthy control subjects. Maggi et al. [3] found an increased proportion of carotid plaques or thickened intima-media thickness in HIV-infected patients treated with PIs, compared with the proportion among PI-naïve patients and healthy control subjects. They also found a more rapid onset of new lesions and a more rapid thickening of previous lesions in patients treated with PIs than in patients treated with nonnucleoside reverse-transcriptase inhibitors [28]. Sevastianova et al. [32] found that prolonged PI exposure was associated with increased peripheral arterial stiffness measured by pulse wave velocity. Van Wijk et al. [7] found that HIV-infected patients had decreased flow-mediated vasodilation but a normal pulse wave velocity. All of these findings are considered to be the first measurable manifestations of atherosclerosis at various stages in a process leading to peripheral arteriopathy. Most of these markers of atherosclerosis are associated with an increased cardiovascular mortality or are putative markers of concomitant coronary disease in the general population.

Several possible mechanisms might be responsible for premature development of PAD in the HIV-infected population.

First, HIV-infected patients tend to have lifestyle-related cardiovascular risk factors, including a high prevalence of smoking, as identified in our study. Second, combination antiretroviral therapy-related dyslipidemia, lipodystrophy, and impaired glucose tolerance may be associated with the development of premature atherosclerosis, as previously shown [3, 4, 28, 29, 32–35], even though an association between PI exposure and vascular disease was not consistently identified [30, 31]. This discrepancy might be explained by the mechanisms by which PIs are supposed to be atherogenic. PIs are associated with usually reversible dyslipidemia, and long-term exposure to PIs is probably necessary for atherosclerosis to develop, whereas a short duration of PI exposure may temporarily modify lipid levels without substantial development of atherosclerosis. Moreover, not all patients develop dyslipidemia on exposure to PIs. This may have been illustrated in our study by the weak association between PAD and PI use, whereas the association with dyslipidemia was stronger. In our study, PI use was associated with a slight increase (OR, 1.03;  $P = .6$ ) in PAD risk, per additional year of exposure. Nevertheless, sustained dyslipidemia, which is attributable predominantly to PI use in this young patient population, was associated with larger ORs for PAD (for non-HDL hypercholesterolemia: OR, 2.94;  $P = .15$ ; for hypertriglyceridemia: OR, 2.98;  $P = .20$ ). This suggests the presence of an association between PIs and PAD that needs further clarification. Larger studies with many more patients will be necessary to confirm the role of PIs and to evaluate potential associations of other antiviral agents with PAD.

A third hypothetical mechanism could be a direct HIV injury to the arterial wall, resulting in inflammatory lesions, as recently suggested by Maggi et al. [36]. This is illustrated by the ectatic or aneurysmal dilation of large arteries observed in HIV-infected children. Lai et al. [37] reported aortic root dilations in children aged 2–9 years with vertically transmitted HIV infection. The aortic root size was associated with left ventricular dilation, increased viral load, and lower CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell count. Dubrovsky et al. [38] reported the cases of 13 HIV-infected children with cerebral artery aneurysms. The etiology of these aneurysms remains unknown, but vasculitis, either infectious

**Table 4. Bivariate and multivariable logistic regression analysis of variables associated with the presence of peripheral arterial disease.**

| Variable  | Bivariate logistic regression |      | Multivariable logistic regression |      |
|---|-------------------------------|------|-----------------------------------|------|
|   | OR (95% CI)                   | P    | OR (95% CI)                       | P    |
| Sex (male vs. female)                                     | 3.20 (0.67–15.5)              | .14  | 1.24 (0.22–6.85)                  | .81  |
| Age (per additional year)                                 | 1.07 (1.00–1.15)              | .04  | 1.09 (1.00–1.18)                  | .04  |
| Smoking (per additional 10 pack-year)                     | 1.30 (0.99–1.70)              | .05  | 1.70 (1.17–2.46)                  | .005 |
| Diabetes mellitus   | 13.5 (1.32–138.34)            | .03  | Predicts perfectly <sup>a</sup>   |      |
| Plasma non-HDL cholesterol level >4.9 mmol/L <sup>b</sup> | 5.50 (1.52–19.94)             | .009 | 2.94 (0.67–12.89)                 | .15  |
| Plasma triglyceride level >2.26 mmol/L <sup>b</sup>       | 3.49 (0.83–14.72)             | .09  | 2.98 (0.56–15.75) <sup>c</sup>    | .20  |
| Hypertension  | 2.39 (0.83–6.91)              | .10  | 1.56 (0.44–5.50) <sup>c</sup>     | .69  |
| Metabolic syndrome  | 2.58 (0.88–7.60)              | .08  | 2.12 (0.59–7.60) <sup>c</sup>     | .25  |
| Exposure to PI (per additional year)                      | 1.03 (0.91–1.17)              | .63  | ...                               |      |
| Family history of cardiovascular disease                  | 2.55 (0.84–7.75)              | .10  | 3.19 (0.87–11.69) <sup>c</sup>    | .08  |
| HIV load <400 copies/mL                                   | 1.50 (0.39–5.79)              | .56  | ...                               |      |
| CD4 <sup>+</sup> T cell count <200 cells/ $\mu$ L         | 7.1 (1.09–46.24)              | .04  | 27.2 (2.55–286.01) <sup>c</sup>   | .006 |
| Presumed duration of HIV infection (per additional year)  | 1.01 (0.91–1.12)              | .84  | ...                               |      |
| HIV clinical stage B                                      | 1.25 (0.34–4.64)              | .74  | ...                               |      |
| HIV clinical stage C                                      | 1.67 (0.48–5.82)              | .43  | ...                               |      |

**NOTE.** PAD, peripheral arterial disease; PI, protease inhibitor.

<sup>a</sup> Because of 1 missing value, all diabetic patients included in the multivariable analysis had PAD, providing a perfect prediction.

<sup>b</sup> Sustained lipid levels (see Methods).

<sup>c</sup> Factors individually analyzed in models including 4 variables (with sex, age, and smoking).

or inflammatory, may be the causative mechanism. These aneurysms may have preferentially affected children in the era before combination antiretroviral therapy was available, because of their presumable exposure to prolonged viremia, resulting in large vessel vasculitis. More recently, Solages et al. [39] also found a correlation between high HIV load and endothelial dysfunction, supporting this hypothesis. However, in many survivors from the era before combination antiretroviral therapy, the HIV load is now controlled by HAART. This may explain why the most recent HIV load did not correlate with PAD in our study. However, low CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell counts were strongly associated with PAD in our study (OR, 27.2;  $P = .006$ ). Such an association has previously been reported by Mercié et al. [30], but the underlying mechanism is not clear. Low CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell counts may reflect the duration and severity of uncontrolled HIV infection and be a surrogate marker of potential endothelial toxicity of HIV. The association of PAD with low CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell count may also be partially confounded by patient age, because older age is a predictor of a less robust increase in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell counts after the introduction of antiretroviral therapy.

This study evaluated the feasibility of identifying patients with PAD using a reliable test, the ABI. Although the ABI measurements were performed by 3 vascular specialists in this study, we previously demonstrated that ABI testing can be easily performed by primary care physicians after minimal training [40]. Because large-scale studies of ABI testing in the general

population have shown increased vascular and nonvascular mortality for patients with an ABI of <0.90 [13–15, 28], this is a call for widespread use of ABI testing in the HIV-infected middle-aged population. Identification of persons with PAD by ABI testing could serve to promote aggressive efforts at cardiovascular risk reduction, particularly smoking cessation.

This study identified a high prevalence of symptomatic and asymptomatic PAD in HIV-infected patients and suggests the presence of an epidemic of PAD ~20 years earlier in this population than in the general population. Patients can be easily and reliably identified by ABI testing, and they presumably are at increased cardiovascular risk, assuming that ABI mortality correlations from the general population can be extrapolated to HIV-infected persons. However, this pilot study is limited by its small sample size, and larger studies are required to better characterize risk factors for PAD and its prognosis in this population.

## SWISS HIV COHORT STUDY MEMBERS

Heiner Bucher, Sandro Cattacin, Matthias Cavassini, Rolf Dubs, Matthias Egger, Lucia Elzi, Peter Erb, Marek Fischer, Markus Flepp, Adriano Fontana, Patrick Francioli (president of the study; Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Vaudois, Lausanne), Meri Gorgievski, Hans Hirsch, Irene Hösli, Christian Kahlert, Laurent Kaiser, Urs Karrer, Olivia Keiser, Christian Kind, Gina Martinetti, Begogna Martinez, Nicolas Müller, David Nadal,

Milos Opravil, Fred Paccaud, Giuseppe Pantaleo, Christoph Rudin (chairman of the Mother and Child Substudy), Patrick Schmid, Detlev Schultze, Jörg Schüpbach, Roberto Speck, Patrick Taffé, Philippe Tarr, Alexandra Trkola, and Rainer Weber.

## Acknowledgments

We are grateful to the Scientific Board of the Swiss HIV Cohort Study for permission to use the Swiss HIV Cohort Study database for data analysis.

**Potential conflicts of interest.** All authors: no conflicts.

## References

1. Periard D, Telenti A, Sudre P, et al. Atherogenic dyslipidemia in HIV-infected individuals treated with protease inhibitors: the Swiss HIV Cohort Study. *Circulation* **1999**; 100:700–5.
2. Carr A, Samaras K, Thorisdottir A, Kaufmann GR, Chisholm DJ, Cooper DA. Diagnosis, prediction, and natural course of HIV-1 protease-inhibitor-associated lipodystrophy, hyperlipidemia, and diabetes mellitus: a cohort study. *Lancet* **1999**; 353:2093–9.
3. Maggi P, Serio G, Epifani G, et al. Premature lesions of the carotid vessels in HIV-1-infected patients treated with protease inhibitors. *AIDS* **2000**; 14:123–8.
4. Depairon M, Chessex S, Sudre P, et al. Premature atherosclerosis in HIV-infected individuals—focus on protease inhibitor therapy. *AIDS* **2001**; 15:329–34.
5. Hsue PY, Lo JC, Franklin A, et al. Progression of atherosclerosis as assessed by carotid intima-media thickness in patients with HIV infection. *Circulation* **2004**; 109:1603–8.
6. Charakida M, Donald AE, Green H, et al. Early structural and functional changes of the vasculature in HIV-infected children: impact of disease and antiretroviral therapy. *Circulation* **2005**; 112:103–9.
7. van Wijk JP, de Koning EJ, Cabezas MC, et al. Functional and structural markers of atherosclerosis in human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients. *J Am Coll Cardiol* **2006**; 47:1117–23.
8. Mangili A, Gerrior J, Tang AM, et al. Risk of cardiovascular disease in a cohort of HIV-infected adults: a study using carotid intima-media thickness and coronary artery calcium score. *Clin Infect Dis* **2006**; 43:1482–9.
9. The Data Collection on Adverse Events of Anti-HIV Drugs Study Group. Combination antiretroviral therapy and the risk of myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med* **2003**; 349:1993–2003.
10. The DAD Study Group. Class of antiretroviral drugs and the risk of myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med* **2007**; 356: 1723–35.
11. Hirsch AT, Haskal ZJ, Hertzner NR, et al. ACC/AHA 2005 practice guidelines for the management of patients with peripheral arterial disease. *Circulation* **2006**; 113:463–654.
12. Hsue PY, Giri K, Erickson S, et al. Clinical features of acute coronary syndromes in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Circulation* **2004**; 109:316–9.
13. Criqui MH, Langer RD, Fronek A, et al. Mortality over a period of 10 years in patients with peripheral arterial disease. *N Engl J Med* **1992**; 326:381–6.
14. Newman AB, Sutton-Tyrrell K, Vogt MT, Kuller LH. Morbidity and mortality in hypertensive adults with a low ankle/arm blood pressure index. *JAMA* **1993**; 270:487–9.
15. Leng GC, Fowkes FG. The Edinburgh Claudication Questionnaire: an improved version of the WHO/Rose Questionnaire for use in epidemiological surveys. *J Clin Epidemiol* **1992**; 45:1101–9.
16. Executive summary of the third report of the national cholesterol education program (NCEP) expert panel on detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood cholesterol in adults (adult treatment III). *JAMA* **2001**; 285:2486–97.
17. Arnedo M, Taffé P, Sahli R, et al. Contribution of 20 single nucleotide polymorphisms of 13 genes to dyslipidemia associated with antiretroviral therapy. *Pharmacogenet Genomics* **2007**; 17:755–64.
18. Alberti KG, Zimmet P, Shaw J. Metabolic syndrome—a new world-wide definition. A consensus statement from the International Diabetes Federation. *Diabet Med* **2006**; 23:469–80.
19. Lijmer JG, Hunink MG, van den Dungen JJ, Loonstra J, Smit AJ. ROC analysis of noninvasive tests for peripheral arterial disease. *Ultrasound Med Biol* **1996**; 22:391–8.
20. Carter SA. Response of ankle systolic pressure to leg exercise in mild or questionable arterial disease. *N Engl J Med* **1972**; 287:578–82.
21. Criqui MH, Fronek A, Barrett-Connor E, Klauber MR, Gabriel S, Goodman D. The prevalence of peripheral arterial disease in a defined population. *Circulation* **1985**; 71:510–5.
22. Raines JK, Darling RC, Butth J, Brewster DC, Austen WG. Vascular laboratory criteria for the management of peripheral vascular disease of the lower extremities. *Surgery* **1976**; 79:21–9.
23. Sheikh MA, Lin S, Li J. Post-exercise ankle-brachial index (ABI) predicts mortality in patients without prior history of cardiovascular events [abstract 2558]. *Circulation* **2003**; 108(Suppl 1):561.
24. Baker JD, Dix DE. Variability of Doppler ankle pressures with arterial occlusive disease: an evaluation of ankle index and brachial-ankle pressure gradient. *Surgery* **1981**; 89:134–7.
25. DeVries SO, Hunink MG, Polak JF. Summary receiver operating characteristic curves as a technique for meta-analysis of the diagnostic performance of duplex ultrasonography in peripheral arterial disease. *Acad Radiol* **1996**; 3:361–9.
26. Zheng ZJ, Rosamond WD, Chambless LE, et al. Lower extremity arterial disease assessed by ankle-brachial index in a middle-aged population of African American and Whites. The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study. *Am J Prev Med* **2005**; 29 (Suppl. 1):42–9.
27. Murabito JM, Evans JC, Nieto K, Larson MG, Levy D, Wilson PW. Prevalence and clinical correlates of peripheral arterial disease in the Framingham Offspring Study. *Am Heart J* **2002**; 143:961–5.
28. Maggi P, Perilli F, Lillo A, et al. Rapid progression of carotid lesions in HAART-treated HIV-infected patients. *Atherosclerosis* **2007**; 192:407–12.
29. Johnsen S, Dolan SE, Fitch KV et al. Carotid intimal medial thickness in human immunodeficiency virus-infected women: effects of protease inhibitor use, cardiac risk factors, and the metabolic syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **2006**; 91:4916–24.
30. Mercié P, Thiebaut R, Aurillac-Lavignole V, et al. Carotid intima-media thickness is slightly increased over time in HIV-infected patients. *HIV Med* **2005**; 6:380–7.
31. Currier J, Kendall MA, Zackin R, et al. Carotid artery intima-media thickness and HIV infection: traditional risk factors overshadow impact of protease inhibitor exposure. *AIDS* **2005**; 19:927–33.
32. Sevastianova K, Sutinen J, Westerbacka J, et al. Arterial stiffness in HIV-infected patients receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Antivir Ther* **2005**; 10:925–35.
33. Manuel O, Thiebaut R, Darioli R, Tarr PE. Treatment of dyslipidaemia in HIV-infected persons. *Expert Opin Pharmacother* **2005**; 6:1619–45.
34. Iloeje UH, Yan Y, L'Italien G, et al. Protease inhibitor exposure and increased risk of cardiovascular disease in HIV-infected patients. *HIV Med* **2005**; 6:37–44.
35. Maggi P, Lillo A, Perilli F, et al. Colour-Doppler ultrasonography of carotid vessels in patients treated with antiretroviral therapy: a comparative study. *AIDS* **2004**; 18:1023–8.
36. Maggi P, Perilli F, Lillo A, et al. An ultrasound-based comparative study on carotid plaques in HIV-positive patients vs. atherosclerotic and arteritis patients: atherosclerotic or inflammatory lesions? *Coron Artery Dis* **2007**; 18:23–9.
37. Lai WW, Colan SD, Easley KA, et al. Dilation of the aortic root in children infected with human immunodeficiency virus type 1: the Prospective P2C2 HIV Multicenter Study. *Am Heart J* **2001**; 141:661–70.
38. Dubrovsky T, Curless R, Scott G, et al. Cerebral aneurysmal arteriopathy in childhood AIDS. *Neurology* **1998**; 51:560–5.
39. Solages A, Vita JA, Thornton DJ et al. Endothelial function in HIV-infected persons. *Clin Infect Dis* **2006**; 42:1325–32.
40. Hayoz D, Bounameaux H, Canova CR. Swiss Atherothrombosis Survey: a field report on the occurrence of symptomatic and asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease. *J Intern Med* **2005**; 258:238–43.